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EDITORIAL COMMENT AND NEWS NOTES

MARTHA FARNUM MEMORIAL SCHOLARSHIP FUND

San Diego associates of the late Martha T. Farnum, who until her death in August was Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Elementary Schools in San Diego, announce the establishment of the Martha T. Farnum Memorial Scholarship Loan Fund at San Diego State College.

The fund, already in use, has been set up to help worthy students in the field of education who need financial assistance in order to complete their college teacher training course. It is administered by the San Diego State College Foundation, a non-profit corporation, with the advisory assistance of a committee of San Diego school administrators and teachers.

Nathan J. Naiman, a spokesman for the committee, pointed out the appropriateness of this type of memorial, for it will help to carry on one of Miss Farnum's most cherished activities—that of recruiting qualified young people for the teaching profession.

Her outstanding professional services were known and respected throughout the state. She had served as an officer of the California School Supervisors Association, as a member of the State Social Studies Committee, and with many other professional groups.

The Memorial Fund, which has received contributions from throughout California, already totals \$1210. The first two loans have been made and a third application is being processed. Contributions should be made payable to the Martha Farnum Memorial Scholarship Fund and sent directly to the San Diego State College Foundation, San Diego State College.

KINDERGARTEN AND PRE-KINDERGARTEN EXPERIENCES OF FIRST GRADE CHILDREN

The California Committee for the Study of Education has received a condensed report from the subcommittee¹ which has been studying kindergarten and pre-kindergarten experiences of first grade children. This study² is titled "Kindergarten and Pre-Kindergarten Experience of a Four Per Cent Sampling of First Grade Children in the Public Schools of California in 1951-52."

The study originated at the California Mid-Century White House Conference called by Governor Earl Warren in September, 1950. Discussion of the needs of young children in this state revealed that information was not available concerning

- (1) the per cent of young children currently attending pre-kindergarten groups
- (2) the number and types of pre-kindergarten groups operating in California
- (3) parents' desire for pre-kindergarten group experience for their children
- (4) the type of pre-kindergarten program and organization parents would prefer.

The purpose of the investigation here reported was to obtain this information.

California is an interesting state in which to make such a study because of its active public and private support of pre-kindergarten programs. For example, for the last six years the State Legislature has appropriated over five million dollars a year in partial support of child care centers for children of low income families whose mothers are employed outside the home. The State also furnishes partial support for parent education, nursery schools operated by school districts as part of an adult education program.

¹ Catherine Landreth, *et al*, Institute of Child Welfare, University of California, Berkeley

² The study was made possible by a grant from the Rosenberg Foundation.

The State Council of Parent-Co-operative Nursery Schools lists over a hundred member schools. In addition there are many co-operatives not as yet members of the council. Nursery schools for physically handicapped children receive state support.

A research institute of international reputation in the University of California maintains pre-kindergarten groups for research and professional preparation of nursery school teachers. In addition seven other universities and colleges in the state maintain laboratory nursery schools.

The first step was to develop a questionnaire which would lend itself to I.B.M. treatment and which would furnish information on children's kindergarten experience, children's pre-kindergarten experience, and desire for pre-kindergarten experience by parents whose children had not had this experience.

Within the limitations of the sampling represented some general conclusions and inferences seem worthy of consideration.

First it would appear that in school districts which have a low A.D.A. more than half of the enrollment in grade one is made up of pupils attending school for the first time. In schools with an A.D.A. ranging from 1,000 to 5,000, more than one-fourth of the enrollment in kindergarten has had previous educational group experiences. To meet the needs of children entering either grade one or kindergarten with such diversities of experience calls for appraisal and adaptation of a program to meet their individual needs.

The fact that possibly 5 per cent of children in the first grade in California public schools attend private pre-kindergartens suggests the desirability of adequate educational supervision of these undertakings. That the second largest percentage of children in pre-kindergartens attend schools partially staffed by parents likewise suggests a need for study of the problems involved in such a procedure as well as the professional preparation of directors of such schools.

Figures showing that half the parents specify a pre-kindergarten with an active parent education program, and that more than half desire parent conferences, parent meetings, and parent

observation in the nursery school would seem to indicate a need for a practical program of parent education.

Similarly the 25 per cent of parents specifying a state supported child care center indicates a possible need for additional facilities for young children of working mothers.

A statistical approximation of what the average parent reporting desires would indicate that he or she desires one of two types of pre-kindergarten, one offering facilities for children of mothers who must earn part or all of the family income, the other offering an educational program for both children and their parents. The second type would offer a three-hour program, preferably five, but alternatively three days a week. It would enroll children between three and a half and four and a half years of age for an average period of one school year. It would have an active educational program for parents and would be partially staffed by parent assistants. If available, these two types of schools would presumably attract at least half the children entering the public schools.

READoption OF TEXTBOOKS AND TEACHER'S MANUALS IN MUSIC

On the recommendation of the State Curriculum Commission, the State Board of Education readopted for a four-year period beginning July 1, 1954, the following textbooks and teacher's manuals of A SINGING SCHOOL SERIES, edited by Peter B. Dykema and Others, published by C. C. Birchard Company, for schools in which music is not conducted on a graded basis:

Happy Singing (grades 1 to 4), pupil's book and teacher's book (with piano accompaniment), and

Music in the Air (grades 1 to 8), pupil's book and teacher's book (with piano accompaniment)

NEW CURRICULUM COMMISSION MEMBERS

At its October 23 and 24, 1952, meeting in San Francisco the State Board of Education approved the appointment of Mrs. Martha MacIntosh as a member of the State Curriculum Com-

mission for the term ending August 29, 1956. Mrs. MacIntosh is Acting Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Charge of Elementary Education, San Diego Public Schools.

Paul Pinckney, Principal of Oakland Senior High School, is a new member of the Commission for the term ending August 29, 1956. His appointment by Superintendent of Public Instruction Roy E. Simpson was approved by the Board at its regular quarterly meeting held in Los Angeles on January 2.

RESOLUTION REGARDING EDUCATIONAL TELEVISION

A resolution directing the Superintendent of Public Instruction to take whatever action is necessary to secure the allocation to California by the Federal Communications Commission of four nonprofit educational television channels (in addition to the eight already allocated) and to request an extension of the time limit for full utilization of such channels was passed by the State Board of Education at its January 2, 1953, meeting in Los Angeles.

The full resolution follows:

WHEREAS modern technology has created a new medium of communication, television, which is having a great impact on our culture and has great potential applications to educative processes; and

WHEREAS the Federal Communications Commission in recognition of these facts has allocated 242 channels, eight being in California, for nonprofit educational purposes; and

WHEREAS the educators and citizens of California have indicated a keen and sincere interest in developing facilities for the use of television in the educative processes as manifested by an advisory committee meeting on the subject called by Roy E. Simpson, Superintendent of Public Instruction, and by a conference recommended by this advisory committee and called by Governor Earl Warren on educational television which was attended by more than 2500 educators and community leaders from all parts of California, and in numerous other ways; and

WHEREAS affirmative action has been taken and is being taken by numerous agencies in California interested in educational television to utilize the television channels presently allocated to California; and

WHEREAS educational television is a resource belonging to all of the people to be utilized for the benefit of all of the people; and

WHEREAS a preliminary engineering report indicates that the eight channels presently allocated to California will not give statewide coverage in order to permit the development of nonprofit educational television facilities to be enjoyed by all of the people and at least four (4) additional television channels will be needed in order to provide adequate statewide educational television coverage;

NOW, THEREFORE, BE IT RESOLVED by the State Board of Education that:

- (1) The Federal Communications Commission is hereby commended for its action in allocating eight nonprofit educational television channels to California.
- (2) The Honorable Earl Warren, Governor of California, is hereby commended for his enthusiastic support in recognition of the potential value of television in the educative processes.
- (3) The full and complete utilization of the present television channels allocated to California for educational purposes is recommended and approved.
- (4) Roy E. Simpson, the Superintendent of Public Instruction, is hereby authorized and directed in behalf of and in the name of the State Board of Education to take whatever action may be necessary in an effort to secure the allocation to California by the Federal Communications Commission of four (4) additional nonprofit educational television channels, or more if required, in order to provide statewide coverage of educational television facilities for the benefit of all of the people of California.
- (5) The Legislature of California is urged to take such action and adopt such legislation, including appropriation of money, as may be necessary to make available the full benefits of educational television for all of the people of California.
- (6) The Federal Communications Commission be respectfully requested, in view of the action which has been taken and is to be taken by various agencies in California as rapidly as possible, to extend the time limit within which to make full utilization of such educational television channels as are now, or may hereafter be, allocated to California for the reason that the present time granted for such utilization is not adequate.

OBSCOLESCENCE OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

History and geography are changing so fast that teachers must be unrelentingly alert to the need for supplementing textbooks and reference materials with up-to-date information, warns the office of Elementary Education of the State Department of Education. Even the most accurate history or geography is limited to recording the facts ascertainable at the time it was compiled. Changes in the boundaries or form of government of a country may occur as the result of election, decree, revolution, emergence of a new national leader, international agreement, or war. In any textbook already in use the information on that country and the other countries affected by the changes thus becomes obsolete and remains so throughout the life of the book, which may be as long as eight years in the case of an officially adopted text.

Schools and teachers have the responsibility for providing up-to-date information to supplement official textbooks and must help pupils to learn the importance of reading thoughtfully and with a questioning attitude and to bear in mind the element of timing that enters into all statements of fact. Children should learn to notice copyright or publication dates of the material they read and should form the habit of dating their own writings and records.

Teachers and pupils should be aware that printed or spoken statements may be based on incomplete research, unauthentic sources, hearsay, or emotion, rather than fact; that not all the news in newspapers, magazines, and broadcasts is documented or verifiable; that portions of statements lifted out of context for quoting may, by intention or accident, misrepresent the original meaning and lead to misguided judgment or action on the part of the reader or hearer.

For the protection of all concerned, California teachers are urged to document statements that may be questionable and to help children to acquire the ability to read critically.

EXPLORING THE WORLD OF JOBS

Donald E. Kitch, Chief, Bureau of Guidance, California State Department of Education, is the author of a new booklet, *Exploring the World of Jobs*, published by Science Research Associates, Chicago, as one of their Junior Life Adjustment Series.

In this booklet, various kinds of jobs, the skills and responsibilities involved in them, job requirements, and working conditions are discussed through the experiences of three pupils who decide to explore the world of work.

Written for the upper elementary and junior high school student, the booklet offers valuable and interesting facts about workers in major occupational fields and analyzes trends.

Other Life Adjustment Series booklets, as well as the monthly Junior Guidance Newsletter, may be obtained from Science Research Associates. This material provides material which may be used for children in the upper elementary grades as well as for use of teachers working with parent groups.

COMMUNITY LIFE BOOKLETS

The Office of the Fresno County Superintendent of Schools has compiled and published a series of Community Life Booklets for use in the lower elementary school grades. Because there was a lack of such materials for pupils, Walter C. Martin, Fresno County Superintendent of Schools, stated that the co-operation of leading local industries was solicited in preparing the series. To date seven booklets have been published for third and fourth grade levels.

Learning about the fundamental activities of the community is vital education for boys and girls, Mr. Martin points out. The compilation of the books was in accordance with the recommendation in the social studies framework ¹ that a study of the community be made in the lower elementary grades.

¹ *The Social Studies Program for the Public Schools in California*. Prepared under the direction of the State Curriculum Commission. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XVII, No. 4, August, 1948. Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1948, pp. 13-15.

In preparing these booklets, participating concerns were asked to furnish information, pictures, and other materials pertinent to their respective industries. The material collected was then edited and mimeographed by the staff of the superintendent's office. Teachers in the county were then chosen to try out the materials in their classrooms. After these tryouts the teachers, the curriculum staff of the office of the county superintendent of schools, and representatives of the industries involved met and revised the material before publication.

Booklets available are the following:

Dairying and Raising Livestock in Fresno County
(Book 1, Grade 3, August, 1948). Price 30 cents.

Irrigation in the San Joaquin Valley
(Book 2, Grade 4, April, 1949). Price 35 cents.

Growing Cotton in Fresno County
(Book 3, Grade 3, July, 1949). Price 35 cents.

Petroleum—An Underground Treasure in Fresno County
(Book 4, Grade 4, September, 1949). Price 35 cents.

Our Grain Crops in Fresno County
(Book 5, Grade 3, September, 1950). Price 35 cents.

Our Fruit Crops in the San Joaquin Valley
(Book 6, Grade 4, June, 1952). Price 35 cents.

Transportation
(Book 7, Grade 3, September, 1952)

A booklet on "Poultry Raising in Fresno County," is being prepared for Grade 4.

HOW CHILDREN AND TEACHER WORK TOGETHER

A new bulletin written by Elsa Schneider entitled *How Children and Teacher Work Together* has just been published as Bulletin 1952, No. 14, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington.

Illustrations are given of how children and teacher work together on things of concern to the whole school, on activities within the class, on problems of individual improvement, and on ways to use free time.

The letter from a kindergarten teacher to the parents of her pupils on pages 9 and 10 suggests an excellent way by which teachers at all levels can acquaint parents with the meaning of experiences that the school is providing for their children.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF PERSONNEL FOR HEALTH OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

A mimeographed bulletin entitled "Suggested Responsibilities of the Administrator, the Teacher, the Medical Advisor, the Nurse for the Health of School Children" has been sent to county, city, and district superintendents of schools in California. The bulletin, produced under the joint sponsorship of the California State Department of Public Health and the California State Department of Education, was prepared in response to the growing recognition of a need for co-operative thinking and action in the development of a school health program. Since the improvement and maintenance of the health of school children and youth is the responsibility of the home, school, and community, the state-wide committee has attempted to delineate the objectives of a strong health program and to state the responsibilities that might be undertaken by the various persons and agencies that work directly with children.

It is suggested that this bulletin be supplied to the medical advisor, the nurse, teachers, and the head of the health unit for the school district. It is also suggested that information in the publication be discussed with parent-teacher groups and school trustees. Additional copies may be secured by writing to Verne S. Landreth, Chief, Bureau of Health Education, Physical Education, and Recreation, California State Department of Education, Sacramento.

RECENT PUBLICATIONS OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATION

Jesse Feiring Williams. *Narcotics: The Study of a Modern Problem.*
A Manual of Basic Information for Teachers. Sacramento: California
State Department of Education, 1952, pp. viii + 40.

This bulletin has been prepared to assist city and county boards of education, administrators, and teachers to carry out the mandate of the California Legislature requiring all schools to plan an instruction program to show the nature of narcotics and their effects upon the human system as determined by science. The bulletin was recommended for adoption as a teacher's manual by the State Curriculum Commission and adopted by the State Board of Education for use in elementary schools. It will also be available for use in the public secondary schools.

Information in the manual is designed to provide teachers in California public schools with accurate, scientific information that may be used in preparing instructional units for appropriate grade levels.

Part I, dealing with information about narcotics, tells what drug addiction is, what the chief narcotics are, why narcotics are used, the effects of narcotic use, and deals with the cure of drug addiction, extent of addiction, and tells signs by which the narcotic addict may be recognized. What steps have been taken in narcotic control and code sections dealing with violation of California laws relating to narcotics are also set forth.

Part II, suggestions for teaching about narcotics, lists the legal requirements for teaching about narcotics, lists questions on narcotics based on information in Part I, and stresses the positive aspect of the problem, that of development of a healthy personality as the best means of combatting the use of narcotics.

Distribution has been made free of charge to all city, county, and district superintendents of schools and to all principals of elementary and secondary schools. Order blanks have been sent to superintendents so that they may order copies for teachers.

Vivian Lynndelle. *Education of the Aurally Handicapped*.

Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. XXII, No. 2 (January, 1953). Sacramento: California State Department. Pp. viii + 32.

The purposes of this bulletin are (1) to explain briefly certain of the legal provisions that relate to the education of hard-of-hearing and deaf children; (2) to present information that will serve as a guide for those who wish to organize special classes for children whose hearing loss is sufficient to handicap them in a learning situation; and (3) to indicate means whereby teachers of regular classes can aid children who have some degree of hearing impairment.

Emphasis is given to the necessity for children with hearing impairment to have opportunities to take some of their work in regular classes and for their participation in an increasing number of regular class activities as they gain proficiency in lip reading and other phases of communication. In this way these children can adjust themselves to life among persons with normal hearing, and normal-hearing children can learn to accept companions with aural handicaps.

The bulletin was prepared by Mrs. Vivian Lynndelle, formerly director of speech correction and hearing conservation in the Alameda City Unified School District, and since March, 1948, Consultant in Education of the Hard of Hearing, Bureau of Special Education, State Department of Education.

A bibliography and a list of useful 16 mm. films are included, as well as a suggested form for use in compiling data for determining the needs of aurally handicapped children.

The bulletin is being distributed to superintendents of schools, school principals, and to a selected list of supervisors and teachers of handicapped children.

GROWING UP CREATES CONFLICTS WITH AUTHORITY

SYBIL K. RICHARDSON, *Curriculum Assistant, Office of the Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles County*

Disciplining and training children is a universal problem. However, the purposes of controlling children's behavior differ in various cultural groups. Certain of them act on the theory that children should "be seen and not heard." In other groups, children are disciplined primarily for the convenience and comfort of adults. In certain others, adults base their practices upon the assumption that they discipline children "for their own good." In reality, adults who employ such practices are penalizing the child by denying him opportunities to develop the qualities that will make him a happy and successful adult. Cultural groups differ, too, in their methods of training children. Corporal punishment is used extensively in certain of them, not at all in others. Certain groups use elaborate ceremonies to control the conduct of their children while others rely solely upon children learning to identify themselves with adults by emulating their behavior.

Contemporary culture has undergone great change within the last generation. During this period of time, convictions regarding the purposes of discipline and acceptable techniques of administering it have been modified by two factors. First, the extension of the democratic philosophy has led parents and teachers to become increasingly conscious of their goals in training children. Democratic living requires each person to show initiative and to be willing to accept responsibility. The personality of the democratic citizen must be unmarred by resentment and free to interact with other people in wholesome ways. To become such a citizen, a child must have opportunity from the first days of his life to develop wholesome attitudes toward himself and others.

Secondly, knowledge of mental hygiene and of the development of personality has led adults to evaluate the methods by which they modify children's behavior. Through this process they have learned that punishment that humiliates and damages the self-respect of those punished may leave permanent emotional scars. They have learned, too, that rational and problem-solving approaches to conflict rather than emotional approaches must be used to help children develop as mentally healthy persons.

Improved techniques of discipline are more evident in certain communities and in certain socioeconomic groups than in others. The modern public school provides a rational environment and a sequence of experiences in which children can learn democratic self-control. Discipline evolves as children learn accepted ways of behavior. Through this process they acquire the ability to participate and contribute fully to a democratic society. Critics of modern education sometimes lose sight of the important part that this type of discipline plays in helping children develop as good citizens. Frequently they unknowingly subscribe to a philosophy of discipline that in practice would develop the type of citizens required in an autocratic society rather than citizens who are capable of participating in the affairs of a democracy. In reality they are being critical of the values that make a democratic society, not school practices. Techniques of training children must not injure their personality growth by causing them to develop feelings of resentment toward others or feelings of excessive humility. Democratic education must develop independent, rational human beings, capable of making wise choices and of facing the consequences of their behavior.

Educators must be familiar with the normal growth of children, particularly the impulses and characteristics that create conflicts between children and adults. They should strive to control conditions that are inimical to healthy growth and utilize those that are favorable.

Resistance or Negativism

From the age of two-and-a-half to five, most children react negatively to many adult directions. Resistance is commonly expressed by refusal to comply, accompanied by the verbal "no," or "I won't." This occurs so generally that it has been accepted by students of early childhood as a phase of normal development. These students point out many reasons why children express themselves in this way. They hold that children of this age are beginning to plan their own actions and resent interference with their plans, and that since their facility with language is inadequate for full expression of thoughts, "Wait a minute," or "I expected to do something else," may be stated as "No, I won't." When children are handled with patience and understanding, their resistance disappears and they begin conforming to reasonable requests. If resistance is handled harshly, however, children may develop personalities which reflect defeat and negativistic reactions in all situations. Many adults continue throughout their lives to reject all suggestions upon presentation although they may accept them after further consideration. During the years of normal resistance and other years into which it is sometimes carried by individuals, wise adults help children to overcome their compulsive negativism by minimizing the use of direct commands and by providing choices in the responses children are asked to make. The skilled nursery school teacher avoids saying, "Drink the orange juice and then put on your coat" but asks, "Will you have your orange juice before or after you put on your coat?" She thereby assumes that the child will comply with her wishes, but gives him some choice in deciding how. Resistance is not willful but arises spontaneously and frequently is not directed toward a particular person or thing. Wise adults, therefore, control their reactions and avoid becoming angry or indignant when a child expresses negativistic attitudes.

Activity of Children

Children are characterized by great activity due to their rapid rate of growth and high metabolism. The male organism in general has a higher rate of metabolism than the female; boys are

therefore generally more active than girls. The great activity of children is also due to their characteristic ways of learning by manipulation and sensory exploration. Biber and others¹ report that when instructed not to use muscular reactions, two-thirds of the seven-year-olds were unable to solve puzzles and mazes through vision alone. Activity increases when children are interested and stimulated by problems. Adults are inclined to believe that normal children participate in an excessive amount of activity. MacFarlane² asked parents of a group of normal preschool children to rate their children's activity as normal, more than normal, or less than normal. Eighty per cent of the parents reported their children to be abnormally overactive. Perhaps it is this belief that causes adults to limit children's activity in ways that range from confinement in small pens to the use of verbal admonitions such as "sit still," or "stop wiggling." Restricting children's free and spontaneous movement causes them to become restless and to develop tensions that may result in many conflicts in school. And if in school, children's deep interests in constructing, painting, and play are overdirected or interfered with, children develop tensions which they express through purposeless activity and nervous mannerisms. Children who lack interest and are frustrated often evidence their condition by constantly toying with any article that is convenient.

The modern elementary school meets the normal needs of children for activity and attempts to compensate for the crowded conditions under which many children live. Adequate space is provided within the classroom for children to move about freely to secure materials they need and to work. Outdoor work space adjacent to many classrooms makes it possible for teachers to provide children opportunities to work in small groups in widely separated areas. Children are thus relieved of the continuous pressure of being in large groups. The school program is based upon children's true interests in constructing and recreating elements of the environment with which they have considerable

¹ Barbara Biber, Lois B. Murphy, House P. Woodcock, and Irma S. Black, *Child Life in School: A Study of a Seven-Year-Old Group*. New York: Dutton & Co., 1942.

² Jean MacFarlane in an address to the Los Angeles County Institute in 1940.

familiarity. By providing adequate space for children's normal activity and by encouraging expression of children's creative impulses, disciplinary problems are reduced to a minimum.

Children's Lack of Experience

Children's immaturity frequently causes them to make mistakes which adults sometimes consider as disciplinary problems. Because of their limited experience, children cannot always foresee the consequences of their behavior—that the clutched tablecloth may bring down all the dishes or that the thrown ball may break a window. Adults often impose upon children standards of value which cause confusion in their attempts to learn. The young child who is enjoying the new skill of throwing things from his chair does not care whether he throws his rattle, spoon, or dish. His mother, however, will try to teach him not to throw things that are breakable or that are expensive by comparison with other things that might be thrown. Taking what is not theirs as a result of not understanding property rights often is thought of as stealing. Frequently the behavior that children learn at home is unacceptable in the school and is cause for discipline.

Constructive handling of children's mistakes depends upon recognizing the causes of immaturity or miseducation. Teachers and parents should co-operate in searching for the causes of children's lying, stealing, or similar faults and in determining whether the behavior is intentional. In analyzing children's behavior, teachers and parents should respect children's feelings and the emotions of anxiety or excitement which accompanied their behavior. Plans should be outlined by which the children can change their behavior and at the same time maintain their self-respect. Within the plans there should be provisions whereby the adults can correct the causes for the children's unacceptable behavior.

Prestige in Children's Groups

Because of their close emotional bonds, young children identify themselves with the standards and values of their parents.

They try to conform to the demands of other adults to win their approval and love. They feel guilt and anxiety when they fail to conform to the wishes of adults. When they are eight or nine years of age, approval of classmates becomes important to them. Yet they frequently find that the standards of their classmates differ from those of adults. This causes them conflicts in their attempts to maintain the affection of adults and to win the admiration of their peers. Children who meet their parents' demands for cleanliness or manners may have to forfeit their classmates' respect. To gain the admiration of their peers, they may have to challenge their teacher's standards of obedience or courtesy.

Wise adults are sensitive to children's needs for friendships and to the traits valued by children at different ages. They know that it is more important that children gain security with their peers than that they unfailingly conform to standards which are acceptable to adults. Parents and teachers should adjust their demands in each new situation and avoid at all times placing children in conflict with their peers. The manners required when there are adult guests in the home or children are eating in a public restaurant should not be required of children when they are in their own groups. Authority should not be delegated to monitors or child representatives in ways which interfere with children's normal relationships. Positions which require children to report their classmates to adults often cost them friendships or cause them to be rejected by the group. Adults know that values and standards change as one matures. A boy who is untidy and disheveled at eleven years of age will not necessarily be that way when he is thirty-five years of age. But an eleven-year-old who does not get along well with others his own age may still be having difficulty when he is thirty-five.

Urge for New Experiences

Much of children's learning occurs through experimental behavior. The young child leaves his familiar playground and the older one plays truant from school to reach out for new experiences. The impulse toward new experiences is a sign of matur-

ing. New experiences in turn are conducive to new maturities. Adult supervision must insure that consequences are not so overwhelming that the child becomes excessively timid and loses initiative. Children should be guided into a sufficient variety of wholesome experiences to assure each of them opportunities to be enthusiastic and zestful.

Intense but Periodic Interests

As children encounter new experiences and as they develop new abilities, their interests are broadened and intensified. However, for a time certain children may appear to be entirely preoccupied with very limited activities, such as collecting screen star pictures, bottle tops or playing cards; others may be feverishly insistent upon seeing motion pictures or television or having a quantity of comic books.

Jersild³ gives the descriptive term "developmental preeminence" to these activities. He points out that after the novelty of the experience or the satisfaction from the new ability declines, the intensity also subsides. The once engrossing interest becomes just one part of the child's total repertoire. Parents and teachers should accept these interests with perspective and minimize prohibitions and admonitions, for the activities stimulate in children drive and persistence which they may later apply in important tasks. On occasions they may be exploited to motivate children's interest in literature, science, and other fields of knowledge.

Conflicts between parents and children can be circumvented by family planning which provides for everyone's interest. For instance, in the use of the radio father's favorite news commentator and mother's music program may alternate with those programs of interest to the children. If parents find that radio and television programs are becoming too engrossing or time-consuming for the children, they can plan experiences which will introduce new elements of interest. They may plan attend-

³ Arthur T. Jersild, *Child Development and the Curriculum*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946, pp. 13-15.

ance at a baseball game, take the children on a trip to some point of interest in the city, or encourage their participation in school athletics.

Independence

Many child-adult conflicts, beginning with the preschool period of resistance, arise from the child's continuing urge to assert himself and to become independent. Since this urge increases as the child approaches adolescence, many disciplinary conflicts occur. The adolescent can become an adult only by questioning authority, evaluating adult behavior, and creating his own code of ethics. If from their early years children have been given choices in behavior expected of them rather than forced to conform to directions and have learned from the logical consequences of their actions rather than from adult administered punishments they mature progressively. Adults who recognize that independence is a valuable personality attribute seek to encourage this quality in youth. Conflicts between adults and youth can be used as opportunity for learning, co-operative planning, and mutual consideration.

As children mature, conflicts between their needs and the demands of the cultures in which they live are inevitable. The feelings and interpretations of the children being disciplined are often very different from those of the adults who are attempting to solve the conflict. In a survey ⁴ of one school system, parents, teachers, and students were asked, "In general is the discipline in your school too strict or not strict enough?" More than one-half of the parents thought it all right, nearly two-thirds of the teachers thought it too lax, and one-fifth of the pupils thought it too strict. Parents and teachers recognize that conflicts are inevitable and that feelings differ. They try to be objective in attitude toward the specific disciplinary incident. Insight into their own feelings and childhood memories free them to direct their energies so as to discover the causes of children's behavior and to plan an environment that will encourage children to develop socially acceptable attitudes toward authority.

⁴ Harold D. Hand, *What People Think About Their Schools*. New York: World Book Co., 1948, p. 146.

PARENT-COMMUNITY UNDERSTANDING OF DISCIPLINE IN MODERN SCHOOLS

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"Nothing that is worth doing in our time will be done easily; that is, without a spiritual rebirth. Unless the blind recover their sight and the crippled learn to walk our very knowledge will slay us. No peace without struggle; no security without risk; no wholeness without simplification; no goods without measure; no love without sacrifice; no full life without the willingness to accept and transcend death in the very process of living. Those who have learned this lesson may build the City of Man."¹

The above quotation might well start this article. It presents a challenge to him who would be a parent and to those who would build a healthy, wholesome community. Science and technology have shrunk time and space. A simple separation of what should be learned in the home and what is to be learned in the school is no longer an easy task. Modern knowledge about learning and about the respective roles of parents, teachers, and the wider community points to a considerable overlapping. It demands of all a higher level of co-operation, mutual support, and understanding than has previously been practiced. It focuses on things that have to be set in order in the adult himself before the desired discipline which youth needs can be achieved.

The Parent—His Role

Much has been said and written about what parents should do to be successful in their roles. Little has been written on what parents themselves should be before they can think of doing or teaching others to do. The admonition, "Do as I say," has not worked out satisfactorily. If it has achieved a semblance of con-

¹ Lewis Mumford, *The Condition of Man*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1944, opposite page 407.

formity it has been at considerable inner expense to the child and has, in most instances, eventuated in serious repercussions for him in later life.

Children learn to do as they themselves are done unto. They see adult behavior, recognize adult feelings and unconsciously "interiorize" them as values which they need to be "like mommy and daddy." When a marked difference occurs between what adults say and the way they reveal their inner selves by acts or feelings, conscious or unconscious, children become confused. For them the deed or the tone of voice is more real and hence preferred as things worth internalizing. Words and admonishments become mere cover-ups. They seem insincere to the child. The child feels and does before he thinks or philosophizes. Language is a late-comer in the child's life.

The main point in regard to the role of the parent is that he or she has to know himself or herself first. This is the beginning of wisdom and maturity. It is the fountainhead from which should come the values of society. It is the yardstick with which one should measure the adequacy or inadequacy of basic institutions. The person who builds his life solely from the strengths which can come from outer sources never will get acquainted with what Jesus called "the kingdom within." The home, the school, the church and the community are the collective externalizations of whatever ways in which, individually and in aggregate, people have achieved in the areas of social and spiritual expertness. First, human beings become. Then they externalize what they are into various institutional forms in laws, ways of doing business, manner of worship, philosophy of education or point of view in regard to the international situation.

It is probably safe to say that these outer marks are an accurate index of what one will find in the inner dynamics of the persons who set up these ways of extending what is in them. If they are clear-cut and functioning, then the sponsors are clear in their insights and goals. If there is fear, confusion, timidity, and an almost abnormal need to be critical of what the schools or the churches are doing, then those to whom these institutions belong, those who are responsible for them, have not succeeded in

making clear the purposes they wish instrumented in their basic institutions. This is a state of affairs that calls for a look at the health of the larger community.

The Balanced Community

An idea is ethereal. A physical thing is material. Personality is the medium, the vehicle through which an ethereal idea has a chance to materialize. Jesus, Socrates, Lao-tse and numerous historical personalities have been right in their insistence that the human personality be given a chance to be the instrument through which ideas become materialized. Woodrow Wilson had to first etherealize the idea of the League of Nations. Its many imperfections were due to the limitations which were present in him as an "instrumenter" and in the larger community which exhibited a hostile and inhospitable attitude toward his efforts. Still the idea persisted and, after a second war with its astronomical costs in human as well as material devastation, it came forth in the form of the United Nations. Gandhi etherealized the idea that human beings shall not be classed as untouchables. This was a tremendous challenge to caste, class, and tradition. Yet it is slowly and discernibly taking on form. Its slowness should not give cause for alarm or pessimism. Nor should people become cynical because the United Nations has not shown the wisdom of an adult when it is not quite eight years old.² What should cause alarm is any deliberate and calculated attempt to kill the materialization of a constructive idea.

Here is where the role of the community becomes of paramount importance. A balanced community is forever strengthening those institutions that allow human beings to seek and find fulfillment. The primacy of the person is the basic value. Institutions such as the home, the school, and the church should constantly be evaluated to the end that their rigidities do not bend the person to obey an outer will at the expense of the badly needed and health-giving inner growth. Institutional inertia becomes cumulative. Means have a way of becoming ends. Private opinion and private judgment are invaded. They no

² Charter adopted April 5, 1945.

longer remain the right of the person to exercise. Outer power intimidates sacred inner conviction. The dynamic nature of the human being is put into a strait jacket. Growth becomes impossible. Decay sets in. The over-all effect is static rather than dynamic. The person is reduced to an automaton. The sacred inner flame is in jeopardy. Wholeness and wholesomeness vanish. The original intent of the community to commune and communicate is altered. A split occurs and instead of the whole personality, a split and schizoid type of person emerges. As the number of such persons increases in the community, a schizoid culture with a vicious, squirrel-cage type of community pattern results.

The balanced community keeps its eye on the person. It keeps him as the end. It sees to it that everything else remains means, vehicles, facilitators of human growth and human unfoldment. It bends every effort, as parent, priest, or schoolman, to help the individual to experience and express, free of all current and historical incumbrances, his deeply felt religious as well as educational attitudes and acts. This kind of healthy community does not come cheaply. One of the main things that can help to secure it is understanding.

What is Meant by Understanding?

Why discuss such a word as understanding? Are not all aware of the importance of understanding in all interpersonal or group relationships? The answer to the question is probably in the affirmative in ninety-nine out of a hundred instances. But there is a catch. As it is in regard to other concepts, so it is in regard to understanding. The widespread lip service given to such matters is no measure of the adequacy of their application on a sufficiently deep level to assure their proper effectiveness. Most of the principles learned from such fields as mental hygiene or clinical psychology have remained, in the main, on the intellectual level. We reason or think with people and are surprised when desired results are not reached. Understanding must operate on a deeper level. It must enter that area known as depth psychology within the psychodynamic structures of the understander and those understood.

To function, the teacher and parent must learn to start where the individual is. A particular level of functioning cannot be superimposed on a person as the basis on which to interact with him. For example, in any face-to-face individual counseling situation, both the client and the counselor try to achieve the feeling that "we are two human beings trying to communicate with each other in regard to a problem and hope to find more adequate ways of coping with such a problem than are now at hand." Thus they achieve a situation in which each has a feeling of equality toward the other but that in this instance one may help while the other may be the recipient of help. In the family situation this is harder to achieve. Parents are emotionally bound up with their children. They have, in most instances, a tremendous investment in them. To be objective, detached, and poised about a stranger is much easier than it is about one's flesh and blood. Yet it is exactly such an attitude and frame of mind which, when achieved by parents, bring on the basic conditions that can eventuate in understanding. In the classroom a different problem is found. There, the danger is in attempting to divorce those things which adults want to take place in the classroom as things separate from the child. However, if a little time is spent to find out about the emotional as well as physical and intellectual development of children, the teacher can then proceed in regard to assignments, lessons, and other learning activities.

The matter of starting where a person is is important because he cannot internalize, unless he sees with some degree of objectivity the things which the teacher wishes him to learn. This takes time. It also takes that process known as aging, mellowing or maturing, a slow process. It cannot be hurried or pressed without the end result being superficial. As he verbalizes his immediate thoughts and concerns and feels that the teacher and he are in tune, then he has set the condition for getting at what the teacher wants him to learn. Education then can gradually become more formalized and the learning process more deeply channeled. Use of the word "education" here is not intended to apply only to what goes on in school. It refers to all learning experiences. In fact, it may be said that it applies mainly to the

patterns of learning set in the child before he enters school. If there is understanding in the home and the business of living and getting a start in life operate from such a base, then all subsequent learning and growth are facilitated.

A plea for understanding can be an empty gesture unless it goes beyond the generalized concept to the specifics. What definite growth patterns can the parent or the teacher be sensitive toward in attempts to be understanding? Space permits only a brief listing of a few behavioral problems which can result from the unfolding of any normal developmental time-line of a growing child. The family unit and its day-to-day functioning will introduce such problems as the needs of each member and how such needs can be met in a manner acceptable to every other member; arrival of a new brother or sister and how the baby may be incorporated into the family without being too costly to the other members; how to enjoy grandparents and other relatives without permitting them to destroy the routine and rhythm which the family has set for itself; conflicts which come from opposed desires such as one's need for recognition and independence as against the simultaneous need for protection, love, security, and dependence; all the problems which confront the family and the school when the child brings what he has learned to be a way of living at home to his school on the first and subsequent days; the child's need to develop the necessary strength and social skills so far as his peers are concerned; the problem created by the bodily processes, particularly at about the pre-adolescent as well as adolescent stages of development; what attitudes to assume when children are too self-assertive or awkward; embarrassment to youth when voice changes are taking place; complications created by complexion ills; the vicissitudes of first love.

These are but a few of the problems which parent, teacher, or counselor must meet as a result of the developmental problems which confront each growing boy and girl. Understanding is the basic attitude necessary in order that children can evolve from their cocoons into healthy adults. But understanding is not enough. It needs to be girded by discipline.

What Is Meant by Discipline?

Everyone has heard the saying, as we have been disciplined, so we discipline. Whatever attitudes and values are internalized in children eventually become inner organization patterns from which to operate. Hence, attitudes toward discipline will probably be quite closely related to the individual's integration pattern. For example, it is important to understand the individual's attitude toward authority. He who does not have a good working relationship with duly constituted authority cannot himself be an effective disciplinarian. If he resents authority, then it is a safe conjecture that he does not have the ability to use authority.

What happens if, in early childhood, a person did not receive fair and just discipline? The chances are that in the role of teacher, parent, or administrator, he will find it necessary either to be overly severe or go to the other extreme and be too vacillating and lax in the use of discipline.

Energies in regard to discipline have, in the past, been directed at attempts to achieve it by the use of outer controls. The mother may say, "Do this for mother," or, "Father will spank you when he gets home," or, "You be good or I'll tell the policeman on you." This approach has so many limitations that a re-evaluation of its merits is long overdue. In the first place, it keeps the child dependent. He has to be scared into acceptable behavior. He never will come to know why it is important to behave in a socially acceptable manner. The main value of fear is to function as a warning signal in time of danger. If fear and fear alone is used to secure discipline, learning, a religious attitude or ethics, the result will be what one motion picture recently called "condition red." The person is on guard. He never learns to love to the fullest his mother and father. He never will have an attitude toward the policeman which says, "He is there to protect me. He is just and fair and necessary for group living." Instead, the uniform will become generalized to represent the punisher. Hence, all authority will become identified with things threatening.

In contrast to the use of external means to inculcate discipline, in recent years teachers and parents have begun to tap that vast

potential known as the structure of the inner man. This is nothing new. It has been discussed ever since Jesus coined the phrase "the kingdom within." What is new is the amount of clinical information which has been accumulating in regard to the value of helping the person to develop discipline by starting with the strengths that are potentially within him.

Most important is the fact that the child's progress toward independence and maturity are enhanced if he is given from the beginning an opportunity to move toward achieving the development of discipline as it can evolve from within. How does he get to this goal? He does so by having a chance to observe, imitate, love, and be loved, and have limits set on his behavior where his welfare, life or limb are in danger.

He achieves muscular co-ordination and integration as a result of taking the ups and downs of life and learning to cope with them with minimum adult interference. In the same manner he achieves a healthy psychological self or personality if he has adults around him from whom he can learn and by whom he can be guided but not overcontrolled. Gradually he develops a habit pattern which makes for a smoothly functioning conscience. He develops self-discipline because he wants to be loved and, later as a father or mother, can love in turn.

Such an approach to authority by mother, father, teacher, boss, policeman in the life of the person moving toward self-discipline becomes a source of security. While the child is growing he may challenge this authority. This is because he wants to test it. If he finds it stable, friendly, firm, and understanding he adjusts to it and accepts it as a part of his value system. If he finds it wobbly, inconsistent, insecure or neurotically controlling, he either succumbs to its demand for outer conformity or he becomes confused, fearful, and neurotic.

This type of approach toward helping children to develop discipline has, among other things, the need for acceptance. Acceptance is conducive to growth. Rejection frustrates growth. Nonacceptance can get results but they take the form of submissiveness or docility toward authority. Or, instead of con-

formity, nonacceptance may find an outlet in fighting or truancy. In most instances it is usually a combination of all three, an unco-ordinated person going in all directions and in trouble both with himself and with those around him. Here the school can be of immense help.

What Is a Modern School?

The modern American school, the modern community, church or business, have different functions to fulfill, but they should all be of one mind in regard to the ultimate objective. This objective is to communicate to youth the American heritage in order that cherished values may be preserved. What are these values? Such a list can be long but here are a few: the sacredness of the individual; the respect for private property; the right to participate by means of the ballot, work, and recreation; free educational opportunities; freedom of speech and religious conscience. The main role of the modern school is to help every American child to accept and cherish these values. In regard to some of them, it has done a good job. In regard to others, it needs constructive criticism, sincere help, and active support.

The word modern should connote that every known method which will help the school do a better job of preserving and improving the democratic way of life will have a chance for application, evaluation, modification, and incorporation. The modern school should be just as up-to-date as any modern business or military force.

In one field, that of fostering mental health, available knowledge seems to be ahead of its proper application. A wider use of such knowledge could eventually justify calling our schools modern. This area has had wide discussion and acceptance. It is clinically documented by psychologists and the medical profession. Yet in education it is a newcomer and has not received real application. Its latest treatment is to be found in the 1950 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association, *Fostering Mental Health In Our Schools*. This publication contains much that can be applied and practiced.

The human organism reacts as a whole being. The learning theories of the past implied that the mind, the body, the stomach, or the heart function as independent units. This kind of psychology tended to simplify man's nature as being a kind of a mechanical robot. "Teach him this and the mind will have impressions made upon it," was the logic.

Enough evidence now exists to conclude that the human being, from the first day of birth to the last day of life, is responding, reacting, and interacting with his environment *in toto*. Life is a continuous process of give and take during every moment of its existence. Growth and development, especially during the first third of the individual's life span, entail different phases through which the individual passes, no matter what is done to him. However, the nature of the personality structure which eventually forms can be healthy or neurotic, depending on the kind of treatment which it receives from its environment.

The evidence at hand in regard to man's developmental pattern seems to go somewhat as follows: he first *feels*, then he *does*, then he *thinks*. Out of feelings, the whole gamut of his primitive emotions, grow attitudes. From doing, he learns specific skills. From thinking, he develops an outlook on life, a point of view which could be called his philosophy, his ethics, or his religion.

The role of the modern school becomes obvious. It cannot work on any one of these. It must accept and understand the total human being as he is. In fact, the whole structure of education can be placed in jeopardy if the educative process tries to emphasize any one of these basic areas at the expense of the other two.

The modern school, like the little red schoolhouse, has as its objective the making of good, healthy human personalities out of the children who come to it. Modern knowledge, the scientific method, loving parents, an understanding community, and a devoted but humble teaching profession all can work together so that no threat to the democratic way of life may come from within.

Within the framework of this brief article, an attempt has been made to say something about what the individual must accomplish in order to be an adequate parent; what the role of the community is in furthering the cause of healthy personality development; the importance of understanding as it facilitates good human relationships; a better approach toward the achieving of good discipline; and, the part which the modern school must play in the over-all picture of helping parents and the community in the training of the next generation of Americans.

DO PARENTS WANT REPORT CARDS?

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Yesterday Sandy brought home his report card. He gave it to his mother with that half-bewildered yet expectant expression that characterizes many children at report-card time. Sandy knew from past experience that a report card brought forth responses from his parents that were sometimes difficult to understand. He was either praised, scolded or punished depending on the marks his teacher put on the card. He knew that for several days his parents would discuss him and his shortcomings to his painful embarrassment. Home ceased to be a comfortable place for Sandy; he felt unloved and unwanted because of his failure to measure up to parental expectancy.

Mrs. Marshall took the card with her usual puzzled expression. She noted that Sandy had an *S* in reading and an *S* in oral expression but that he had an *I* in spelling and a *U* in arithmetic. *S*, she knew, meant satisfactory, but she asked herself: Satisfactory for what? Does this mean that he reads as well as others in his class? Or, considering Sandy as the boisterous, active, little boy that she knows him to be, does it mean satisfactory for him? The *I* means: Is improving. "Well, I should hope so," she comments to herself. "That is what he is going to school for, isn't it?" That should be good enough for a nine-year-old but she knew that she should not be pleased. *I* was definitely a less desirable mark than an *S*. She would have to talk to Sandy about that and about the *U* in arithmetic. Why should Sandy be unsatisfactory in anything? Was it his fault? Should she blame him for not understanding arithmetic or should she blame herself? She considered her own childhood struggles with

mathematics and decided that it must be an inherited weakness. You couldn't expect a child to be satisfactory if he just did not have it in him. As many parents do, Mrs. Marshall was developing a feeling of guilt which made her less able to cope with the problem objectively.

Mrs. Marshall turned the card over to the side labeled Citizenship. An S in Working with Others told Mrs. Marshall that the teacher considered Sandy satisfactory in this regard. Dependability was followed by another I. She thought of the times Sandy had taken good care of his baby sister and had done the family shopping competently. Wasn't that dependability? Just what did the teacher have in mind? The item, Work Habits, was labeled with a U. That's strange, she thought. Sandy helped his father on Saturdays and often washed the dishes. He was childishly messy about his work to be sure but he always worked in a friendly and co-operative spirit. His Dad often called him a good worker. These marks were meaningless to Mrs. Marshall. She did not know the basis on which the judgment was made. The stark symbols on the report card shed no light on her questions.

Mrs. Marshall looked at Sandy. He read her bewilderment and volunteered: "Jim got four U's and three I's. I did better than that. Mary got all S's but I don't think the teacher is fair. She likes Mary better than me and Jim. She gave me U's just because I didn't finish my arithmetic papers on time. Besides, I don't like arithmetic, nor that teacher nor Mary either." Sandy rushed outside just ahead of an unmanly torrent of tears. Mrs. Marshall put the card on the table and stopped for a moment lost in thought. Is all this good for Sandy? Should he be comparing himself favorably or unfavorably with Jim and Mary? They are our neighbors and should be friends. Is this report card making Sandy dislike his teacher and his school? Sandy has always been so co-operative. Is it right for the school to put this type of emphasis on competition?

Incidents similar to the one mentioned occur in the homes of several million children many times each year. Report cards are greeted with nonchalance on the part of certain parents but

to others they are a matter of great concern. For certain children severe punishment often follows poor marks while others add money to their piggy banks as rewards for good marks. In many homes report cards are as traditional as candles on a birthday cake and as inevitable as taxes.

In approaching any problem related to children, both the parents and the teachers must ask themselves this question: "Is what we are doing or what we propose to do in the best interests of the children?" What are the best interests of children? What do they need to help them grow up? They need assurance that they belong, that they are wanted in their homes, their schools, their neighborhoods. They need friends with whom they can work and play. They need lessons they can understand and learn. They need guidance that is just and kindly and that will help them to learn self-direction and to accept responsibility for their acts. They need opportunity to explore the stimulating aspects of their environment. What purpose does the report card serve in meeting these needs? What do parents and teachers think is its usefulness? Many of them would say that the report card informs parents as to the progress of children in school. What is the evidence on this point? Research indicates that teachers' marks vary greatly even when applied to the same piece of work. One study showed that a geometry paper was graded from excellent to poor by different teachers. Certain teachers included neatness in their evaluation, others considered the method of doing the problem important, while others judged solely on the basis of the correct answer.

Psychologists have studied the "halo effect" in examinations. This is a technical term used to describe the effect of the child's personality on the tester. A good or bad impression of the person being tested often influences the examiner's evaluation of the subject's answers to questions. Sandy felt this when he observed that the teacher was not fair; the halo effect that surrounded Mary was to her advantage. He may have been right. In other words, a mark on a report card may give the parent an idea of his child's status in the class but more frequently it reflects the attitude of the teacher. Variations in marks from year to year

reflect a different perspective on the part of successive teachers all of whom may be responding to the child as a likable or as a difficult personality.

Both parents and children are confused when teachers use marks as reprisals for bad behavior. A young college student told an amazing story the other day. As in all well-regulated gymnasiums, students are required to take a shower following the gymnasium period. Some of the girls feel that they have 'beaten the game' if they can escape this formality unnoticed by the instructor. Why do they resist the showers? Perhaps it is a matter of saving that precious five minutes; perhaps it is the complete lack of privacy of which the institution approves in connection with its bathing facilities or perhaps it is the fact that showers are obligatory that has generated the resistance. In any event a continual struggle for supremacy goes on between instructor and students but the teacher has at last solved the problem. Students who are caught skipping showers are given the next lower grade for the semester. This is tragic enough if the *A* which the student was counting on to bolster her grade points is reduced to a *B*, but it is truly grim if she were a borderline case and flunked the course. Grim, indeed, to repeat the course—including the showers! And how confusing to parents.

It is frequently claimed that the report card points to the child's weaknesses or needs so that the parents can do something about them. Most parents do not know what to do. They are in the same predicament as Mrs. Marshall when faced with a *U* in arithmetic. She knew that Sandy would have liked an *S* but for some reason did not attain it. Should she take on part of the teaching process herself? Should she punish or bribe Sandy? Should she encourage Sandy to take on little business ventures to develop his facility with numbers or should she accept his inadequacy as inevitable? The *U* did not tell her the cause of his trouble nor indicate to her any way for her to remedy it, but it did make her question her competency as a parent and it made her see Sandy in a new light. She lost some of her pride in his accomplishments. He was a boy judged unsatisfactory in his

school work but the parent too frequently extends this evaluation unconsciously to include his total worth as a person.

The child, too, gains a false impression of himself. He accepts the teacher's marks, which emphasize primarily achievement in academic fields, as a complete measure of himself. A child may have an academic weakness, and at the same time be a competent individual in many significant ways.

The farmer with a \$50,000 investment in his land may find the intricacies of the income tax beyond his mathematical ability. He may, however, have a profound knowledge and skill in the handling of soil and crops. The skillful mechanic who keeps our cars rolling may find the abstractions of grammar beyond the range of his interest and ability. No one would question, however, the usefulness of either of these workers to their community.

The important thing to the child is that he think well of himself. No one ever had his self-confidence or personality developed by having someone come along at regular intervals to say he wasn't doing very well. Every individual builds his life in terms of his strengths. A weakness is only important if the individual can do something to remedy it. A child can only do better as he sees the next step he must take and is helped to experience success in taking it.

Claims are often made that the report card brings the parents, the school, and the child closer together; that this means of communication becomes a liaison between the home and the school. It would probably be more nearly correct to say that the report card is a weapon which destroys the child's love of learning and threatens the most fundamental need of all children—the confidence of their parents. Marks on a report card have too frequently been the only motivation for school work. "What did you get on your card?" is the question pupils ask each other and the question parents ask their children. Because of this emphasis on marks children lose their joy in learning. Their satisfaction lies in beating their fellows in the race for marks and the pride of their parents when they have received better marks than their neighbors. Those who achieve high marks usually like school

although it does not guarantee that they have really learned nor that they have tasted the joys of scientific investigation or of expressing themselves creatively.

The traditional report card doesn't have much to recommend it even for the child who is able to achieve high marks because it may produce in him inflated ideas of his own importance. Here is a young college professor who acquired his three collegiate degrees *cum laude*. He had a straight A record in high school and college and without doubt was at the head of his class in his elementary school days. But he is the most completely egocentric person you can imagine. He can talk of nothing which does not involve his experiences, his activities, his achievements. He is the hub of the universe. He has a lisping, cluttering speech defect which makes it difficult to understand him without the greatest concentration of attention. He speaks so low that his students have great difficulty in hearing him at all beyond the second row.

This young college professor's report cards probably did a disastrous disservice to him. By inflating an already well-developed ego they contributed to his social and emotional retardation and minimized in his own mind the necessity of improving his methods of communication. He has never felt the need to improve his articulation. He has seen no reason to be interested in what other people are doing and thinking. His success in his career has been delayed and curtailed and he will probably never fully achieve the promise inherent in his high level of intelligence.

Those who do not achieve high marks usually dislike school and all of the activities it represents. They turn away from those tasks that have brought so much shame. Some are lucky enough to regain their self-respect through achievement in other fields; others live their lives with deeply-rooted feelings of inferiority and resentment against the people and the institutions that made them lose their self-confidence.

Do report cards reward pupils who have worked industriously and stimulate the laggards? Research answers that success stimulates further effort and that failure leads those who experience it

to escape into daydreams or to find excuses for themselves. Children who bring home good reports usually work to maintain them. Children who bring home poor reports often drop out of school as soon as it is legally possible or turn to other activities for satisfaction and comfort. The children who work for marks, and all children do whose efforts are evaluated in this manner, must learn the techniques for achieving them if they are to be successful. They learn "what the teacher wants" and how to give it to him. They learn to value right answers rather than the knowledge itself because right answers are rewarded. Report cards do motivate the children who are already successful but they often motivate them to learn methods of accomplishment that are of questionable value. Even among graduate students the moving question is: "What does the professor want?" The content of the course, its intrinsic interest and life values are often completely subordinated to the preparation of reports and the answers to examination questions that get by. Marks do not stimulate most laggards but only reinforce their opinion that school work is difficult and uninteresting.

Do report cards help parents to understand their children? As a rule they do not. Because a mark on a card is often an invalid judgment it is misleading to parents. Because the mark does not interpret causes or suggest remedies it usually serves only to baffle parents. They do not know why the judgment was made and so have no idea as to what they should do about it. Except for the few children who always have excellent reports, a card of this sort shakes the confidence of parents in the learning ability of their children and focuses attention on the weaknesses rather than on the successes which stimulate growth.

Why do we perpetuate this educational evil? Why do we begin in the kindergarten and continue through college to threaten and prod children with an artificial stimulant that often poisons their educational lives? Mrs. Marshall would answer: "Why, it's always been done. I always had a report card and so did my grandmother. Whoever heard of not having a report card?" She might also point to the changes that have been made. When she was a child her work was graded in per cent. She might have

had 80 per cent in reading and 76 per cent in music. Now many school systems use the *A B C D F* method of marking because it is obvious that no teacher can differentiate between a pupil who earned 76 and one who earned 78 in music. Many school systems have recognized the invalidity of attempting to judge children on this five-point scale and have reduced the differential further to the *S, I* and *U* system that is current in Sandy's school. But even this method presents difficulties as Mrs. Marshall has realized. But Mrs. Marshall wants a report card because she does not know any other way to keep track of Sandy's school work. It is the only contact she has with the school; the only insight into what goes on in the classroom. Like the candles on the cake, they have always meant birthday to her and although they drip on the frosting to discard them would leave a void in the celebration. Tradition, failure to understand the evils of the report-card system, and lack of ingenuity have kept parents from throwing them into the fire before they disrupt the family. A face-to-face talk with the teacher would make all the symbols unnecessary and Mrs. Marshall would understand what the teacher means when she says: "Sandy is improving."

Do teachers want report cards? Many teachers do not want them. They realize their invalidity and their detrimental effect on children and parents. But ineffective teachers cling to them. They like the power of the weapon they wield. They can reward or punish children who do or do not accept their standards of behavior or accomplishment. It makes such teachers feel important to be able to control the lives of others in this manner. A teacher can shift the responsibility from herself to the child by the mark she gives. "You earned the poor mark," she says in effect, not, "I have been unsuccessful in teaching you."

By holding the threat of a poor mark over a child, certain teachers believe they are able to get children to swallow unpalatable doses of subject matter for which the child sees no need. The effectiveness of this coercive weapon is an illusion because it creates tension which is often an insurmountable barrier to learning. For certain teachers report cards are a defense against change in their methods of working with children and change is a painful process. It is easier to point to the child and say, "You

are not working," than to find new ways to encourage him to learn those things that will be useful for him. It is easier to blame the parents because the child does not "work well with others" than to find out why he does not and then do something to help him make better social adjustment.

Will educators forever cling to this educational evil? Will they always place the blame upon the children and make their parents feel guilty? How long will they continue this competitive race for marks? Most schools have not been able to break away from tradition. Teachers say the parents insist on having report cards.

A few schools, stimulated by intelligent parents, have broken with tradition entirely. In these schools, parents visit the classrooms and the teachers help them to understand the activities in progress. The parents have regularly scheduled conferences with the teachers in which the progress of children is discussed. Samples of the children's work, the results of standardized tests, written descriptions of children's behavior are the scientific data for these conferences.

The traditional schools protest that this cannot be done. The teachers are not ready for such revolutionary change. The parents cannot or will not come to school. This is the rationalization of those who enjoy the power inherent in the old method. In the schools where the conference method has been tried it has been found overwhelmingly successful. Teachers are stimulated to think more clearly about the children that they teach and to be more scientific in their approach to problems. Teachers learn more about the children in their groups and develop insight into family life and parental concerns. Parents do come to school. In one school system 90 per cent of the parents arranged to confer with teachers even though many had jobs that had to be considered in the scheduling of time. A survey of parent opinion in this school system indicates that parents like the method. They understand what the school is trying to do; they see for themselves the difficulties their children are encountering. The parents and the teacher plan together for the next step in the child's development without placing blame, rewarding or punishing children for the inevitable differences in the human race.

THE NEED FOR PUNISHMENT

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If health, happiness, and constructive personal and social effort are acceptable goals in our society, growing up is a complex and difficult task. Many of the reasons for the difficulty are revealed in the psychology of human beings, but even increased understanding of this psychology has not always led to positive action. Traditional methods of managing children persist long after scientific research has demonstrated their fallacies.

Clinical and experimental research studies have demonstrated certain of the underlying dynamics of corporal and psychological punishment in aiding or retarding personality growth. Although the information revealed by these studies is available, many people may not have had opportunity to become familiar with it and many who have had such opportunity may intellectually accept the new concepts presented but continue to behave as before. Others may read and discard it because it conflicts with what they consider common sense or proposes what they choose to call a "soft" policy of discipline.

Discipline is an integral phase of education. The role of punishment is important, the effect of punishment on the victim and the giver is usually great. Punishment of a certain kind and degree may be necessary and constructive at times but on the other hand the results of punishment may be exactly opposite of those anticipated. Strong clinical evidence supports the theory that certain children and adults continually seek punishment by being persistently negative in their behavior rather than improving their behavior as a result of punishment. A few short histories of such people may be helpful in gaining a better understanding of the underlying reasons for such behavior.

Some People You May Know

Johnny, aged 9, jeopardized the lives of his schoolmates and teachers by riding his bicycle through the schoolyard without any seeming caution. The principal, after several warnings, forbade Johnny's bicycle anywhere on the school grounds. The following week Johnny drove his bicycle alongside the slowly moving school bus, darting in occasionally as if to run his bicycle in front of the bus, and finally was chased by the frightened driver. The following week, Johnny tried the same procedure. This time the principal spoke to his parents and found to his amazement that these incidents had been accurately reported to the parents by the boy. "Mother, I did a bad thing today," said Johnny, and he would relate the incident. Once he handed a stick to his father before telling him. A month later, Johnny was run over by an automobile. A major operation saved his life.

Ralph, aged 16, came from an economically successful family. There seemed little reason for him to steal. Despite outstanding intelligence and alertness, Ralph's escapades always ended in disaster for himself and any companions he happened to have along. After all the mystery about the robbery of Grant's Hardware Store, Ralph walked into Police Headquarters two weeks later and calmly told how he accomplished it. On probation, Ralph and Jerry stole a 1949 Chevrolet in Jackson, a town 20 miles away, and drove it home. Ralph parked before his house and drove the car around town for two days before being apprehended.

Jean, aged 29, had been married twice and was embarking on her third marriage. Her first husband had beaten her at two-week intervals, coincidentally with his drunken spells. During one of these spells he fell out of a second-story window and was killed. Jean, then 22, soon married a 50-year-old man whom she met in a bar. She supported him for two years but upon complaint of neighbors she had to have him confined in Stockton State Hospital. Her third husband had been married twice also, but seemed to make Jean an excellent marriage partner. He obtained a job, did not drink, treated Jean kindly, and seemed ex-

tremely happy. At this time, Jean began to berate him for unkind thoughts toward her, insisted the neighbors were spying on them, began to drink herself, had violent headaches, and was finally picked up for shoplifting. On probation, she was again picked up by the police—this time for drunken driving and disturbing the peace. The latter charge was a result of firing blank cartridges during her alcoholic drive.

There is the case of Mary, who at the age of 25, had gone through two husbands and an estate of \$25,000. She looked 50 and supported herself by picking cotton in the fields.

Ed, aged 45, forged checks in his town and went home to await arrest.

The Paradox of Success in Failure

All of these individuals—Johnny, Ralph, Jean, Mary, and Ed—are tied together by a single bond, perhaps not readily apparent. The motivation for their behavior is an unconscious need for punishment. We read about, hear about, and know these people in everyday life, yet we often fail to recognize that basically such people must fail, must be apprehended, must be injured. Unless this happens to them, life is unbearable. Because these people have this persistent, nonadjusting behavior pattern, they drift, with few exceptions, into the punishing institutions of our society or in the case of the accident-prone group into our hospitals.

Clinical psychologists and psychiatrists have seen many of these people and are generally aware of this emotional pattern. Some of the workers in the field of education, criminal hygiene, probation and detention need understanding and sensitization to the personality structure of these people. It is indeed difficult for one not exposed daily to the strange emotional logic of human beings to understand why Johnny should attempt self-destruction—or failing that, punishment—or why Jean should suddenly fall ill upon marrying a kind husband. Perhaps by going a little further into the case of Johnny or Ralph, we might better understand them as individuals and thereby understand others like them.

Johnny's Need for Punishment

Johnny's mother was a childlike, emotionally infantile woman. Johnny's father, who worked nights as a movie projectionist, was a solemn, unyielding man. When Johnny was three, his father ran away. During this period, his mother and he became emotionally dependent in an unreal manner—they slept in the same bed and Johnny was told that he was now the man of the family. His mother would dress him up at night and they would go to motion picture shows as other couples did. Dinner was served with candlelight and wine whenever Johnny returned from play. Johnny's mother did everything to convince herself and Johnny that the boy could substitute for the man.

When Johnny was six, his father returned and was accepted into the household by the mother. A year later, Johnny's mother was pregnant. Johnny, his father, and his mother spent some time talking over the coming baby. Johnny's father and mother both seemed happy, but Johnny sulked. The birth was premature and the weakened baby died at the age of six months. The onset of Johnny's daring exploits on the bicycle started a few days after the baby's death.

The origin of the need for punishment has been identified without much doubt as an attempt to appease one's unconscious feelings of guilt. This feeling is a generalized one; it develops in the individual a state of increasing tension; ". . . the origin of this unconscious need for punishment . . . behaves like a part of the conscience, . . . that is to say it will correspond to a piece of aggressiveness which has been internalized and taken over by the super-ego."¹ The irrationality of the individual so driven is understandable. He has no knowledge of his unconscious strivings, nor is he aware that his behavior is characteristically anxiety-relieving. In Johnny's case, we have evidence based on case history, free association, drawings, psychometric and projective tests, interviews, observation, puppet plays, and play therapy behavior. Apparently, this is what may have been happening. Johnny's mother, being emotionally infantile, reacted to the father's leaving by unconsciously placing three-year-

¹ Sigmund Freud, *New Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis*. Translated by W. J. H. Sprott. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1933, p. 149.

old Johnny in his place. Johnny and his mother became husband and wife, in fantasy.

Clinical observations indicate that children between the ages of three and six are emotionally drawn toward the parent of the opposite sex and that this relationship can be highly emotional and prolonged. We can now perhaps understand Johnny's repressed guilt, how he felt when his father returned and he ceased to be the apple of his mother's eye. First, his father came back and took his mother away from him. He went back to his own little bed, had to be in for dinner when his father came home, and stayed home with a baby sitter while his parents went to a movie. Secondly, another individual was soon to take away more of his mother's love. Emotionally, Johnny was saying, "I wish I had mother to myself; I wish I were rid of this baby mother is going to have." Apparently hostile feelings against the father were repressed and subdued—Johnny had enough guilt on that account. Besides, Johnny thought, father is a much bigger and more powerful individual than I am and it is best not to make more of an enemy of him than is necessary. Consequently, there was a displacement of feelings toward the child and an emotional wish on Johnny's part for the baby's removal (death). When the baby dies, Johnny is overwhelmed. "I have killed this innocent child; it's all my fault; I am worthless. For what I have done I deserve contempt and severe punishment," he thinks. A few months later Johnny was in the hospital.

There are no short cuts in the understanding of these basically masochistic personalities. Other factors in Johnny's young life have been omitted which bear directly on his behavior. Suffice it to say, the evidence was overwhelmingly convincing that Johnny felt the need to be punished; that his behavior was motivated by unconscious attempts to relieve tensions; and that these tensions were produced by abnormal feelings of guilt.

Punishing the Punished

Facts regarding the need for punishment are not new. Approximately 20 years ago Alexander and Staub² re-emphasized

² Franz Alexander and Hugo Staub, *The Criminal, the Judge, and the Public. A Psychological Analysis*. Translated from the German by Gregory Zilboorg. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1931.

the basic facts herein related. Others have also emphasized the role of guilt feelings and the need for punishment in certain members of society.³ Menninger and Reik have devoted entire books to the problem.⁴ These punishment-needing people form a large segment of the population of penal institutions since their basic personality structure necessitates capture.

The basic fact that educators should understand is that these people remain as they are mainly because society encourages their neurotic behavior pattern by punishing them.

The danger which lies in such an attitude is obvious. Suffering becomes not only atonement, but provides emotional justification for discarding the prescription requested by our conscience. This explains the paradoxical fact that punishment is not a deterrent but just the opposite. One's conscience is relieved if he is punished—he feels that he has amply paid for his misdeeds; and if the punishment was severe, he even feels that he is now justified in being inimical to society. He is now on the credit side of life and can go forward with aggressive activity.⁵

This cycle continues interminably—until this ever-spiraling inner feeling of aggression and hostility is released.

It seems obvious that if punishment could deter behavior, crime and delinquency would have disappeared long ago. Many children are punished repeatedly without any results except anger and frustration on both sides. Now and then there are children who respond favorably to punishment, but these are children who rarely need it. Is it feasible to punish a child when it is known from past experience that punishment accomplishes nothing but more hostility and aggression?

³ Sigmund Freud, *Three Contributions to the Theory of Sex*. New York: The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co., 1930.

Karen Horney, *The Neurotic Personality of Our Time*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1937.

Anna Freud, *The Ego and the Mechanisms of Defense*. Translated from the German by Cecil Baines. New York: International Universities Press, Inc., 1946.

Franz Alexander and William Healy, *Roots of Crime*. Psychoanalytical Studies. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1935.

Robert M. Lindner, *Rebel Without a Cause*. The Hypnoanalysis of a Criminal Psychopath. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1944.

⁴ Karl Menninger, *Man Against Himself*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1938.

Theodor Reik, *Masochism in Modern Man*. Translated from the German by Margaret H. Beigel and Gertrud M. Kurth. New York: Farrar & Strauss, 1949.

⁵ Franz Alexander, "Why Men Punish." Lecture in San Francisco, November 17, 1950.

Almost all children have at one time or another taken something that did not belong to them. Certain of them have continued to take things while others stopped. Certainly it is not fear of punishment that distinguishes the two groups. Both Aichhorn⁶ and Alexander⁷ report successful handling of the more seriously hostile children by a kind, forgiving reaction to their provocative behavior. Since the child's adjustment is based upon harsh and repressive control, his equilibrium is upset by any treatment basically warm and understanding. These children are fairly sure all adults are alike. Should they meet someone who does not immediately conform to the stereotype of the harsh, punishing adult, they will provoke him or her relentlessly until once more they can say, "He's just like all the rest." Aichhorn tells with some humor the anxiety and turbulence in boys when their provocative behavior did not seem to yield the desired results. To be friendly and kind in situations provoking anger and hostility is not easy. It is much more difficult than the threat, the push, the slap, or the deprivation. Perhaps with a little more understanding of behavior dynamics, the neutralization of hostility can be more adequately accomplished by school personnel.

One of the greatest accomplishments of human beings is the management of aggression. It cannot be assumed that aggression can be managed in individuals through outer controls. Each of us has his own policeman—his conscience—which acts in opposition to the expression of raw aggression. Conscience is developed as we emulate and incorporate the behavior and attitudes of adults.

Individuals who are susceptible to uncontrolled aggression have been found to be individuals who lacked experience in identifying themselves with understanding, warm, emotionally mature adults. Parents and teachers need to understand that children cannot develop internal controls through a punishing kind of discipline. The problems posed by the Johnnys and

⁶ August Aichhorn, *Wayward Youth*. New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1935.

⁷ Franz Alexander, *Fundamentals of Psychoanalysis*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1948.

Ralphps in the public schools are: How can authority and cultural demands be presented to children in such a way that they can be accepted and incorporated into the personality structure of the child? How can discipline be harmoniously and effectively administered in a school without isolating, rejecting or being retributive to the more deviant members of the population? Through improved understanding of the dynamics of punishment and its role and limitation in producing desirable personality changes, schools can do more to help children attain the mental health necessary for effective participation in a democratic society.

THE CONCEPT OF DISCIPLINE IN RELATION TO JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

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Children are not born good citizens. In the beginning they have no conception of the rights of others, nor of the rules of civilized society. If an infant sees something he wants he tries to grab it. If he is hungry he screams for food. He thinks nothing of throwing things on the floor or banging his doting grandmother on the head with his rattle. He seeks immediate gratification of every desire without the slightest regard for what anybody may think. In fact, if the average infant were bigger and stronger he would undoubtedly be considered a delinquent child.

Fortunately, most children learn to get along with other people and to abide by the rules of society as they grow older. They learn to restrain impulses, to postpone demands, to leave other people's property alone, and to respect the authority of parents and teachers. It is often said of such children that they show the results of good home training. Delinquent children, on the other hand, have not made the transition so successfully from the untrammelled instinctive behavior of infancy to the relatively restrained and socially acceptable conduct of well-behaved adolescents. People frequently say that the delinquent child has not been brought up right, that he has not had proper home training and that he needs discipline.

What is the difference between the training of the delinquent child and that of the average nondelinquent youngster? Both start life uninhibited, unsocialized, and completely undisciplined, but one acquires attitudes and patterns of behavior which enable him to make a satisfactory social adjustment while the other does not. The answer is to be found in the elements which go into the training of the well-adjusted child, for delinquency

like a deficiency disease is due to inadequacies in the emotional and psychological diet of the child.

Many things go into the care and training of a child but the elements that contribute most directly to his social adjustment may be divided into two categories, love and discipline. Modern authorities agree that love and affection are especially important in the first few years of life and premature attempts at discipline may be detrimental to the emotional and social development of the child. Psychiatrists frequently attribute the behavior problems of delinquent children to the fact that they were deprived of parental love and affection in early years or felt rejected by their parents. Harsh and excessive discipline is often an expression of such rejection by one or both parents, and thus is commonly associated with cases of emotionally deprived children. Ill-considered discipline, moreover, comes into conflict with the affection and sense of security which are so important for wholesome emotional development.

If a child has had adequate love and affection in infancy he naturally imitates his parents, follows their directions, and seeks to please them. He gradually assimilates their attitudes and standards and grows up with a sense of right and wrong patterned after theirs. Thus there is little occasion for the parents to resort to stern disciplinary measures. If the child has been neglected or rejected, however, his development is hampered and distorted by feelings of insecurity and anxiety. The child does not identify normally with parental ideals but on the contrary may develop hostile and antagonistic reactions. As a result the parents are apt to grow more and more severe in their efforts to enforce obedience.

Thus the statement that a delinquent child shows lack of discipline is likely to be misleading. It may be that he has had too much discipline that was not founded upon a sound basis of mutual love and respect. A father once said to me, "I don't know what's the matter with my boy. I whip him and I whip him but he still keeps on stealing things." Obviously, whatever caused that boy to steal was not being overcome by the whipping. It is a matter of common observation that many of the children who

come before the juvenile court because of delinquency have been subjected to harsh discipline in their homes.

The notion that severe punishment can deter a juvenile offender from further delinquency regardless of the long-standing problems of personality and character that led to his misconduct is widely held. This is perhaps understandable since drastic punishment usually produces obedience and conformity at the moment. If the immediate response is all that is required such disciplinary procedures might seem to be effective. Experience indicates, however, that patterns of delinquent behavior cannot be erased so simply and that harsh treatment is in itself liable to create new problems or aggravate the old ones by inspiring resentful and rebellious attitudes.

Some years ago, while employed as a probation officer, the writer encountered a striking illustration of the futility of harsh punishment. I had worked unsuccessfully with a quiet-mannered, intelligent, but seclusive and maladjusted boy who was the product of an unhappy home situation. Due to repeated burglaries he was finally sent to a state school. Subsequently he escaped, committed further burglaries, and while being pursued by a police officer was shot, suffering a serious and extremely painful abdominal wound which kept him in the hospital for six months. When at last he was able to leave the hospital an attorney became interested in the case and appealed to the Juvenile Court to allow the boy to go to another state to live with a relative instead of being returned to the state school. "If punishment could ever deter anyone from crime," the attorney said, "this boy will surely never steal again after the agony he has suffered." Because of this argument and the fact that the boy still would not be able to fit into the state school program due to his injuries he was given the out-of-state release. About a year later, however, he was again arrested in Los Angeles, and this time proved to have committed more than seventy burglaries. He had certainly been punished more severely by the policeman's bullet than even the harshest judge could have prescribed, but his lawbreaking was due to a deep-seated personality problem which punishment did not change.

The fact that discipline cannot compensate for deficiencies in the emotional development of the child and that ill-considered discipline may aggravate social maladjustment or create new behavior problems does not mean, however, that discipline is unnecessary. On the contrary, discipline in its broader sense, is essential for the development of a well-balanced personality and could not be eliminated from the child's experience even if it were desired to do so. Adults must assume responsibility for the conduct of children, and this necessarily involves the elements of control and training. Even the most indulgent parent must sometimes say No! The spoiled child who has been conditioned to expect everyone to bow to his wishes is due for a rude awakening when he comes into contact with the outside world. There must be limits to the child's freedom of action and not all decisions can be left to his discretion.

Authorities in the field of mental hygiene have placed so much emphasis upon the child's need for love and reassurance and have called so much attention to the unfortunate effects of rigid discipline and emotional rejection upon the child's personality that sometimes parents have swung to the opposite extreme. Whether because of their own emotional insecurity or because of their eagerness to avoid the evils of repressive discipline, they show excessive fear of frustrating the child's wishes, indulge his every whim, and create an artificial world for him in which he plays the role of a tyrant and they become his abject slaves. Such treatment not only makes the child insufferable to others, but causes anxiety and distress to him as well. Tantrums become his weapon against reality, trivial disappointments become a source of emotional crisis, and the result is apt to be a neurotic personality if not an aggressive delinquent.

Renouncing harsh punishment as a disciplinary method does not mean that the child must always be given free rein to do as he pleases nor that those responsible for him must rely solely upon appeals to reason and personal persuasion, much less cajolery or bribery to gain his co-operation. It is true that the process of setting limits and establishing socially acceptable patterns of conduct should be a natural part of the child's devel-

opment and should not conflict with his feeling of security in the love and affection of his parents. If his relationship to his parents is good he will generally accept reasonable guidance and control without too much resistance. Even under the best of circumstances, however, a child is bound to want to do some things which cannot be permitted and to object to some things which are necessary. What then? Perhaps a signal from the parent is all that is needed—a look, a word, the tone of voice, the lifting of an eyebrow. The small child who tries to climb up on the kitchen range may have to be picked up bodily and put in a safer place. If he gets hold of his father's watch it may have to be taken from him. If on occasion the signal is re-enforced by deprivation of privileges neither the child nor the parents need be too disturbed about it. As the child grows older, however, the matter of discipline becomes more complicated.

An adolescent cannot be picked up and carried about nor is it feasible to take things from his hands by force. Corporal punishment becomes an affront to his pride, provokes hostility, and tends to absolve him from any feeling of guilt for his misconduct. His developing conscience and practical judgment are increasingly important in determining his behavior, and adults cannot expect to manage his life as completely as they did when he was an infant. Influences outside the home, and especially the influence of his contemporaries, assume a major role in shaping his conduct. Most important is the fact that his basic personality and character are pretty well established by this time and cannot easily be changed.

If personality problems and defects in character development predispose a particular child to antisocial conduct, discipline alone will not prevent or correct his delinquency. But the average youngster, while not especially inclined toward delinquency, is not immune to it either, and for him discipline or the lack of it may be a crucial factor, not because discipline *per se* strengthens his character, but because it affects his conduct. The adolescent, for example, is tempted to stay out too late at night with his friends. Instead he comes home at a reasonable hour because his parents require it, and if he disobeyed his parents he would be

punished, perhaps simply by knowing that they were displeased, perhaps by losing the privilege of going out the next time. In this case the discipline maintained by his parents may have kept him from being involved in delinquency, not just because he was prevented from doing something he wanted to do, but because it is hazardous for youngsters to be roaming the streets at night. We no longer believe that unnecessary and artificial rules are beneficial as a means of establishing discipline and teaching obedience, but discipline is needed to accomplish specific purposes. Order must be maintained in a classroom so that the children may hear the teacher and can concentrate on their work. Thus poor classroom discipline may contribute to a child's delinquency if it results in his failure to succeed and gain satisfaction in school, but it is the effect of discipline upon his school adjustment, rather than any character-building value of discipline for its own sake that is important.

To summarize, discipline is an essential element in the development of a child and plays an important role in the formation of personality and character. To be effective, however, discipline must be founded upon emotional security, and consequently harsh or unreasonable discipline is detrimental to the child's personality, and is more apt to aggravate than to correct delinquent tendencies. Corporal punishment generally tends to create attitudes conducive to delinquency. Conversely, weak or inadequate discipline may be equally unwholesome for the child's social adjustment and may likewise contribute to delinquency. Finally, discipline *per se* has little or no value in preventing antisocial behavior but it is necessary in guiding and regulating the conduct and activities of children who might otherwise get into trouble.

MENTAL HYGIENE IN THE SCHOOLS OF CALIFORNIA

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California is spending annually about 350 million dollars to deal with the direct results of individual behavior disorders and social maladjustment.¹ Two national estimates, one based on incidence in Selective Service cases and the other on a population survey in the Baltimore area, set the number of psychiatric cases in America as 8.5 million.² Not included in these estimates are those individuals with personality difficulties such as are encountered in accident proneness, vocational maladjustment, alcoholism, narcotic and barbitol habituation, suicide attempts, and crime.³

One look at the resources available to deal with the ever-increasing problem of behavior disorders reveals an extreme paucity of workers in this field. Although hospital beds for patients with emotional disorders equal half of all the hospital beds available, in most cases the therapy and individual care necessary to rehabilitate such patients are lacking. A physician reports the recovery of a woman who had been hospitalized but untreated for 17 years.⁴ At the age of 72 after treatment she was able to leave the hospital and work satisfactorily as a practical nurse and companion housekeeper. For the first time someone had taken the time and interest to help her deal with her problems. This occurred as a result of an influx of professional workers into her ward. In a foreword to Dr. James A. Mott's report, "Rapid Recovery from a Long-standing Illness," Dr.

¹ "California's Midcentury Conference on Children and Youth." Report of Research Committee, September 12, 1950 (mimeographed).

² Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, *Statistics Pertinent to Psychiatry in the United States*. Report No. 7, Topeka, Kansas, March, 1949, p. 1.

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ James M. Mott, Jr., M. D. "Rapid Recovery from a Long standing Illness." *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic*, XXIV (September, 1950), 117-182.

Karl Menninger says: "One cannot but wonder how many other patients who have been hospitalized 17 years or less might be similarly rehabilitated if someone had the patience, the imagination, the skill, or the good fortune to press the right key."⁵ One also cannot help but wonder how many unhospitalized individuals there are who have residual emotional conflicts and also wonder how they are faring in our society. General practitioners and general clinics estimate that about 50 per cent of the general nonhospitalized population have some element of functional emotional disorder.⁶ With less than 5,000 psychiatrists, about 1,000 psychologists, and 1,000 psychiatric social workers available in the United States, it becomes increasingly evident that any attempt to deal with this problem merely on a treatment or rehabilitative basis would not attain the desired end. Certainly all the treatment facilities and personnel that can be secured are needed, but, by and large, authorities are agreed that if we are to deal with this problem satisfactorily more and better ways of prevention must be found.

The school lies in a particularly advantageous position for a positive approach to the prevention of emotional disorders. Although it is true that human beings have lived perhaps their most formative years before entering school, the personality of the growing child is still far from mature. In the schools children are more and more assuaging emotional hungers left unfulfilled in their early experiences. A sensitive teacher can in most cases discover the child's needs and can plan, perhaps with the aid of professional personnel, some program for satisfying this emotional hunger. The school is also very much aware as an institution of the reality of individual differences. For the most part teachers have had this concept discussed and explained in many courses, institutes, and teachers' meetings. Our schools have fought many a pitched battle to realize the ideal of education for all American children—including the lame, the deaf, the blind, and the mentally retarded. Despite all this, the schools can and want to do more in this field. It is evident scientifically and

⁵ *Ibid.*

⁶ Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

empirically that knowledge and education in an immature person can often be misused individually or in society.

Individuals who cannot work harmoniously with their fellows can help a democratic society little. A person who has one or more unmet emotional needs cannot act freely in understanding other people's problems and needs. It is therefore imperative to strengthen all factors and programs promoting emotional maturity and to discover and diminish all factors causing or prolonging emotional immaturity in children.

Positive action on a local level has been begun in many schools and communities. The Federal government, through the National Mental Health Act, has made consultive and financial resources available to the various states for work in this field. Such nonprofit foundations as the Ford Foundation and the Rosenberg Foundation are vitally interested in problems of human relations. Committees of psychiatrists of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry are also exploring this field.

In an effort to co-ordinate and explore the possibilities of promoting sounder mental health in children several state agencies have formed an Interdepartmental Committee on Mental Health.⁷ This group has been exploring methods of furthering mental health through closer departmental co-ordination, promotion of research, examination of present programs, and acting as a clearing house for a discussion and analysis of problems presented to the committee by state agencies. The committee is vitally concerned and interested in examining its role at the state level and assisting where possible in the investigation, promotion or evaluation of mental health programs in communities. School or community leaders who are examining or developing mental health programs should feel free to use this resource.

⁷ Membership includes representatives from the following state agencies—the Departments of Education, Mental Hygiene, Public Health, Corrections, Social Welfare, the Youth Authority, and the Recreation Commission.

TECHNIQUES FOR STUDYING INDIVIDUAL CHILDREN

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Modern techniques for studying individual children are based on certain general concepts of behavior which were discovered by psychological research or through clinical practices. Child psychology has revealed many facts pertaining to the sequence of maturation of functions and behavior. Psychiatry has revealed the necessity of understanding the underlying dynamics, the motivating, and the conditioning of behavior.

The three concepts mentioned in the statements which follow should be given special attention by persons studying individual children.

1. *Maturation* is reflected by the child's mental, emotional, physical, and social development. The level of maturity can be determined through observations made by skilled observers, or through the use of scores from tests standardized for this purpose. It merits particular attention during the years the individual is in school.
2. *Motivation* includes all things which incite the individual to act. Motivation that underlies overt behavior may exist in any degree of consciousness or unconsciousness. The more closely it approaches the unconscious state the more difficult it is to identify. Proper motivation is of great importance in the child's education, re-education, guidance, and therapy.
3. *Conditioning factors* are the child's native equipment, his physical condition throughout his life, incidents in his life history, and environmental influences. Each of these factors may be studied through physical and mental exami-

nations or through interviews with the child or with adults familiar with the child's history. Information regarding factors which have conditioned a child should be used in planning a program for his welfare.

Ways in which techniques for child study based on these concepts can be applied are made apparent in a case study of Jeannette, a first grade child.

Jeannette, six and one-half years old, showed erratic, non-conforming behavior, disturbing to her teacher and the other children in the first grade. A report of severe behavior disturbances followed her from nursery school. She showed unusual ability in reading and was far above her grade level; she drew well and wanted to draw continually. She refused to participate in most other activities and had almost no contact with other children.

Jeannette's problem divided into two parts. The first part dealt with her conduct in school. The procedures followed in studying this part of her problem are indicated in the statements which follow.

1. After establishing Jeannette's school progress and educational history, a physical and a mental examination were given.
2. The school physician found Jeannette in good health; no physical defects were found, but a history of bed-wetting was reported. Asthma attacks and severe colic during the first three months of her life were revealed.
3. A mental examination with the Stanford-Binet Test, Form L, showed Jeannette's I.Q. to be 98. But the results of two group tests indicated that she had I.Q.'s of 127 and 129. This variation in I.Q.'s indicates an emotional factor present in the individual test situation that was not present in the group test situation.
4. A study of the home followed but it did not reveal sufficiently negative factors to explain Jeannette's maladjust-

ment. The parent-child relationship seemed good; the parents seemed intelligent and concerned, and unusually aware of the presence of a problem. A well-adjusted, 4-year-old sister did not seem to exercise an unfavorable influence on Jeannette.

The school psychologist co-ordinated and summarized the information discovered in the first phase of the study. In many cases a summary thus formulated, enriched by observation and records, will provide an adequate basis for charting the course which parents and teachers should follow in working with the child. In severe problems, however, such as Jeannette's, a more elaborate study must be made. Techniques must be employed in which the nature of the disturbance, the motivating factors within the child, the conditioning factors in her environment, and the child's history are clearly revealed. This part of the study must of necessity be done outside of school, as it is time-absorbing and requires the service of specialists.

Three studies were made in attacking the second part of the problem. These are described briefly in following paragraphs.

1. Jeannette was studied by means of tests in which projective techniques are employed. A projective technique is one in which the subject is apt to reveal the unconscious underlying motivation of his behavior and thereby throw light on those concealed conflicts or other emotional disturbances which may be causing undesired behavior.

The Rorschach test utilizes projective techniques but it is not yet fully standardized for childhood years. It shows more than any other test the level of personality integration or disintegration of an individual and indicates the causes of the existing state.

In the case of Jeannette, the personality picture revealed by a Rorschach test was that of an emotionally uncontrolled, insecure, and tense child who does not think along the lines of others and who shows tendencies toward escape from reality. Most of her associations are unhappy

fantasies, full of hostility, anxiety, and unreality. Clinically, the picture is, if not that of a schizoid, at least that of a severely neurotic personality.

A second test employing projective techniques, the World Test, which involves the use of miniature objects and figures for construction (houses, trees, cars, fences, animals, people) was given to Jeannette. She built a world all fenced-in, which showed her extreme feeling of insecurity. In the construction work she revealed confusion, rigidity, and aggressiveness.

The Murray Apperception Test was not used in this case because corresponding information could be obtained in play therapy to which the parents had agreed.

2. A study of the child's history was made through an interview with the parents. From this it was learned that the mother had been nervous and the parents had been considering divorce during the mother's pregnancy, that Jeannette had colic and allergies in her first years of life, that she was still bed-wetting often, that she masturbated, and that she bit her fingernails. The mother had noticed what she called daydreaming. Jeannette had tantrums, was restless, did not play well with other children, did not show affection, and was often hard to manage. Her early history definitely showed the symptoms of a neurotic development.
3. A study was made with the parents. They readily admitted that their own personalities and behavior were probably partly responsible for the problems exhibited by Jeannette. The mother admitted that she and the grandmother encouraged Jeannette's hobby of reading comics, her use of unusual words, and her drawing of fantasy pictures because they saw in all this, signs of mental superiority, possibly of genius.

The mother herself showed features of an odd, insecure, and wrongly self-assertive personality similar to that of the child. She willingly took a Rorschach test. The re-

sults showed that she had tendencies to escape from reality quite similar to Jeannette's, although within a much more normal range. Both parents described freely the difficulties experienced in their marital relationship.

After all the information obtained had been studied, it was concluded that Jeannette was a seriously neurotic child who needed psychotherapy to help her adjust sufficiently to participate in school life successfully. The parents' personalities were considered of decisive influence. However, it was also felt that the child's maladjustment, particularly her confusion about reality, was out of proportion to the negative influences of her environment. It was considered possible that Jeannette's innate equipment would prevent her from ever enjoying a normal personality.

After a three-month period of psychotherapy, Jeannette showed many improvements, such as discontinuance of bed-wetting and masturbation, and improved contacts with other children. But the children generally considered her as odd, for she made strange remarks and lived in fantasies. It was decided that a home teacher should continue to work with Jeannette until a re-evaluation of her development could be completed.

To many persons who are not familiar with the complexities and the values of thorough personality analyses, it may seem that a too complicated and too expensive procedure is employed in analyzing an individual's problem. How, one may ask, can we do justice to all the school children in a class, a school, a city, a county, if one individual requires so many hours of work before one knows how to understand her adequately? This question and this concern may be justified, yet there is no known way of simplifying the procedure, nor does it appear that one will be discovered in the near future. Human beings are complex, and they differ in conditions of life and conflict patterns. However, the worthwhileness of this procedure becomes obvious in the light of the following considerations.

1. Not every child needs this type of elaborate study to be understood and to be handled adequately. Such a study is the exception, not the rule.
2. The children who benefit from such a study are not only the few with whom they are actually carried out. The others in the class profit from the problem child's improvement and from the increase of the teacher's general understanding of children's personalities.
3. If the expense for this type of public assistance is compared with the expense of institutions for the mentally ill in which irrevocably maladjusted persons must be placed, many of whom might have been treated successfully at an earlier time, then the expense and effort involved in such studies seem minimal in comparison and are of maximum benefit for the welfare of all.

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